DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 265 757 HE 018 838

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TITLE Planning for Quality and Efficiency in Higher Education.
PUB DATE 84
NOTE 19p.; Revision of a keynote address presented at the Forum of the Association for Institutional Research for European Members (6th, Brussels, Belgium, August 22, 1984) and printed as a chapter in "Beyond Retrenchment: Planning for Quality and Efficiency" (6th European Forum Proceedings), edited by Charles H. Belanger.
PUB TYPE Viewpoints (120) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *College Planning; *Decision Making; *Economic Factors; Educational Policy; *Educational Quality; Higher Education; Models; *Policy Formation; *Problem Solving

ABSTRACT

Different planning methods are discussed, and quality and efficiency as planning objectives are addressed in this paper. The purposes of corporate, governmental, and collegiate planning are distinguised and sequential versus transactional models are explained. It is suggested that collegial planning may be a hybrid of sequential and transactional planning methods. The sequential model is characterized by step-by-step, rational, and analytic features, while transactional models permit the interplay of attitudes, beliefs, and values in the planning process. Transactional models can incorporate traditions, norms, standards, and other values that might go unattended in sequential planning modes. Advantages and disadvantages of sequential problem-solving and transactional decision-making models are identified. Two indices of efficiency in higher education are outlined: efficiency as a ratio of inputs and outcomes, and efficiency as a ratio of resources and demands. Nine convincing indications of quality in higher education institutions and programs are identified, along with three unconvincing indications of quality. (SW)

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# PLANNING FOR QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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A slightly different version of this paper was presented as the keynote address at the Sixth AIR Forum for European Members in Brussels, Belgium on August 22, 1984 and has been printed in Charles H. Belanger (Ed.) Beyond Retrenchment: Planning for Quality and Efficiency (Sixth European Forum Proceedings), 1984.

## PLANNING FOR QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Policy may be defined as an event, a process, or a product. As an event, policy may be a legislative enactment by a law-making body or it may be a deliberate choice between alternative modes of institutional operations or practices. As a process, policy may be a series of events that culminate in a widely held belief that shapes or influences future decisions and actions. And of course, policy may be the product of a concerted, sustained process—a plan, blueprint, schedule, or calendar of events that specifies when and where certain events will take place.

But whether an event, process, or product, policy is central to whatever corporations, governments, and universities have in common. It is an abstraction that is indispensable in managing multinational corporations, in governing geographic/political divisions of society, and in administering educational institutions and programs. It is very much the encoding, instructing, directing, sustaining function upon which organizations, institutions, and societies are dependent for progressive and intelligible action. It is the organizational computer program, software, or memory tape that facilitates intelligent decision or choice.

Planning in higher education displays in the 1980s a remarkable convergence with policy—public, institutional, and educational! Policy can be viewed as the appropriate object of planning, and it is not inappropriately viewed as the object of educational research. Indeed, it is not inappropriate to define planning as the conscious, deliberate formulation of public, corporate, or institutional policy and the specification of means by which policy can be implemented. Thus, a policy-making process would appear to be a visible and common characteristic of all viable corporations, governments, and universities. Unfortunately for universities, however, their policy-making process is not as well defined or specified as the processes that can be observed in many business corporations or in many forms of national and/or regional planning. In too many colleges and universities, the planning or policy-making process remains a mystery to public leaders, elected or appointed officials, and the participants themselves.

The 1980s may later be recalled as the decade in which there was the first genuine awareness or appreciation of the increasing interdependency of each nation's business corporations, government agencies, and institutions of higher education. This awareness has been brought about by the international competition that is evident in the production of automobiles, television sets, cassette recorders, cameras, and other feats of modern technology. Successful competition in international markets clearly implies planned cooperation among industry, business, government, and education. And it suggests an avid concern for both quality and efficiency in technological innovation and production. National policies of planned cooperation among business, government, and education may indeed be responsible for the competitive edge so often conceded to Japan and the nations of western Europe by American businessmen.

## PLANNING PURPOSES AND METHODS

The threat of international competition has produced, in the U.S.A., a strenuous criticism of public education and an intense advocacy of better planning. In 1983 alone, over ten different national commissions, panels, or task forces issued reports in which the quality of public schooling was criticized. Recommendations converged on a national need for better cooperation between schools and colleges, for strengthening the preparation of students entering college, and for ensuring standards of quality for both entry and progression in institutions of higher education. The last two or three years of high school and the first two years of college were seen as perilously close to disaster, and nothing less than extensive reform was seen as the solution. One of the national task forces was explicit in addressing its educational concerns to the nation's failures in international competition (ECS, 1983).

Planning is increasingly advocated as an effective means of adaptation to the changing environmental conditions that are so evident. This mode of planning, often identified as strategic planning, implies that institutions of higher education now function in a different climate or environment and must cope with changing demands that are primarily situational, external or contextual. As a style of planning, this mode is often silent about internal resources and developmental trends that operate from within. To some observers, there is thus a contradiction between adaptive planning that would accommodate environmental change and developmental theories that suggest an intrinsic unfolding of growth stages.

Carrying evolutionary metaphors to their full length, some theorists see a natural selection of institutions as a consequence of environmental competition. They speculate about developmental processes in which adaptable features or functions are reinforced and non-functional or nonadaptable features are selected out. Others cast institutional change in the mold of sociocultural evolution and suggest that institutions driven by knowledge, information, or technology have a different kind of propelling force or elan. The development of such institutions is not random or blind but planned-and-directed. The success or effectiveness of such institutions in dealing with environmental change is by no means natural; it is the result of a process that includes trial-and-error, experimentation, and deliberate variation in programs and services. Many such efforts are provisional in the sense that they introduce changes in programs or institutional practices that will eventually be retained or eliminated, depending on circumstances.

### THE DIVERSITY OF METHODS

Although policy is a common characteristic of corporate, public, and educational planning, the multiple purposes of corporations, governments, and universities suggest that different methods of planning must be chosen and developed. The purposes served well by one method of planning would

not seem to be equally well served by others, and the multiplicity of organizational purposes strongly suggests a differentiated approach to planning and/or policy formulation. Indeed, the differences among corporate, regional/urban, and collegial planning models in the U.S.A. impress some observers as being both extensive and profound.

Corporate planning models must take into consideration the production and distribution of goods and services for profit. Planning efforts are often tightly directed by executive teams making varied use of planning specialists and expert consultants. Without exception, the nature of the planning is oriented to results and the outcomes of planning may be a relatively easy reorganization of corporate structure, with comparatively easy reallocation of corporate resources. A data base is often available in the form of economic and demographic trends graciously supplied by a benevolent national government. Marketing surveys are readily obtained from competent, private sources. The improvement of living standards and increases in customer satisfaction are among the benefits of corporate planning, but they are more likely to be side-effects or eventual pay-offs than direct benefits. Corporate planning is accountable only to stockholders, one or more federal regulatory agencies, and an occasional consumer advocacy group. And if successful, corporate planning may bring bonuses, promotions, and high levels of responsibility to its participants.

Regional/urban planning has a different objective in its concern with land use and the spatial/temporal environment in which people live. Professional planners and/or consultants may contribute substantially to the deliberations of public planning commissions, but planning outcomes in the form of public policy, guidelines, and regulations may produce bitter public confrontations. The public, for whom planning is done, may decide that it has other property rights and privileges that are more important than those envisioned by planners. The data base for planning may be extensive, in the form of historical records and demographic shifts, but commission-directed surveys of land use and public opinion may alter the phenomenon they objectively study. Quality of life and improved patterns of community living are obvious benefits to be gained from regional/urban planning, but they may be too indirect to gain acceptance by the citizens, taxpayers, and voters to whom the planning is accountable. And for those participating in the process, professional and/or personal satisfaction may be the only reward.

Similarities to corporate planning and regional/urban planning are readily detected, but their differences from college and university planning are much more pronounced. Collegial planning addresses societal needs for institutions, programs, and other services in postsecondary education. Responsibility for such planning is often assigned planning committees that may include public representation, but more often a planning team or group will consist of institutional representatives who are chosen for their internal

constituencies. Planning may be accountable to governing boards, federal or state agencies, or the academic community large, but the outcomes of planning will most likely be changes in institutional policies, additional accredited programs, improvements in financing and funding, and a restoration of institutional vitality or public image. The data base for collegial planning may vary greatly. In many cases, more data on enrollment trends, faculty supply and demand, and institutional income/expenditures will be collected than will be used. And unless the planning is exceptional, there will be noticeable leaps from the data base to the envisioned future programs and services of the institution. The advantages and benefits of collegial planning will be particularly difficult to communicate to clients, users, and beneficiaries of the institution. Often these will be expressed in terms of improved student competencies and faculty performance, better incentives and rewards for teaching and learning, and enhanced institutional image or reputation, but the indices will lack the tangibilities that usually come with corporate planning. As for benefits to planning participants, there may be occasional promotions or reassignment of duties but there will be no bonuses and very little public recognition. Many participants in collegial planning prefer, in retrospect, not to be identified with the outcomes or results of their planning efforts.

The gist of the differences among corporate, public, and collegial planning would seem to be the logical, sequential, problem solving approach that is permissable in corporate planning and the political, deliberative involvement and participation that characterizes regional/urban planning. Success in the former is apparently dependent upon the systematic, step-by-step, rational, analytic features that are called in to play, while effectiveness in the latter is related to the commitments and transactions of the planning participants and/or their constitutencies. Collegial planning may thus be a hybrid of sequential and transactional planning methods in which there is a varying concern with the rational analysis of data and information—and the deliberation of concepts and values.

## SEQUENTIAL VERSUS TRANSACTIONAL MODELS

An example of a logical, problem solving, sequential model is given in Figure 1. As shown, sequence is the dominant feature of the model and clearly implied is the notion that planners proceed by dealing with, "First, this! Then, that!" As such, the model and the kind of planning that it represents is subject to what Kaplan (1964) has called ordinal fallacies. It is possible to take wrong steps and it is possible to put carts before horses. But if designed and applied well, sequential planning models can enable planners to "loop back" to earlier stages and to refine or to recast earlier decisions and data for later purposes. No step in the process is final and those who prefer to see iteration as the dominant feature have reason for doing so.

Transactional models, such as the one shown in Figure 2, have the advantage of permitting the interplay of attitudes, beliefs, and values in the planning process. Value premises and/or preferences can be handled in a process of proposal, counterproposal, and compromise. And, of course, the arts of persuasion and conviction are very much in evidence once the process begins. The prestige, influence, or personal influence of one or more participating policy-makers may be crucial in determining planning outcomes. Factual data, its rational analysis and interpretation may be entirely secondary and indeed, may be ignored altogether. The essence of transactional modes of planning may be that they are seldom, if ever, research or data based.

Transactional modes, however, have the further advantage of incorporating traditions, norms, standards, and other values that might go unattended in sequential modes of planning. The intellectual and cultural heritage of institutions can influence decisions and choice without reduction to quantified indices, or relegation to a category of uncontrolled variables. Thus, we can better appreciate the natural ambiguity of purpose described by Burton Clark (1983) and the significance of the humanities and arts in the universities of Italy, the specialized schools (grandes ecoles) or advanced institutes of France, the maintenance of Oxford and Cambridge as a special class in themselves in England, and the "symbolic unity" brought to many universities by such events as intercollegiate athletics and national championships.

Also accommodated by transactional modes of planning are such values as social justice or equality of educational access, fairness in the application of educational standards, professional or career-related competence, and the development of individual or personal abilities and interests. As policy-makers address the recurrent questions of "Who will be educated?" and "What will they be taught?" they inevitably deal with societal preferences and values. In virtually no planning situations, are societal values and preferences systematically derived, empirically established, universally accepted, and easily entered into the quantitative formulas of computer-based planning models.

## THE COALESCENCE OF PLANNING MODELS

If planning is correctly perceived as the formulation of institutional and program policy, and if the choice of planning methods is dependent upon institutional purposes, there is appreciable need to reconcile the effective-but-conflicting components of planning methods and/or models. Viewing a professional lifetime of involvement in policy-oriented research, Torsten Husen (1984) dismisses linear, problem-solving models of research and planning on the grounds that they do not depict the realities of educational policy-making. The direct chain of basic research to applied research to development and application simply cannot be observed. Husen is supported by Rune Premfers (1984) who writes that he has observed no major

FIGURE 1

## A SYNOPTIC MODEL FOR GENERAL PROBLEM SOLVING

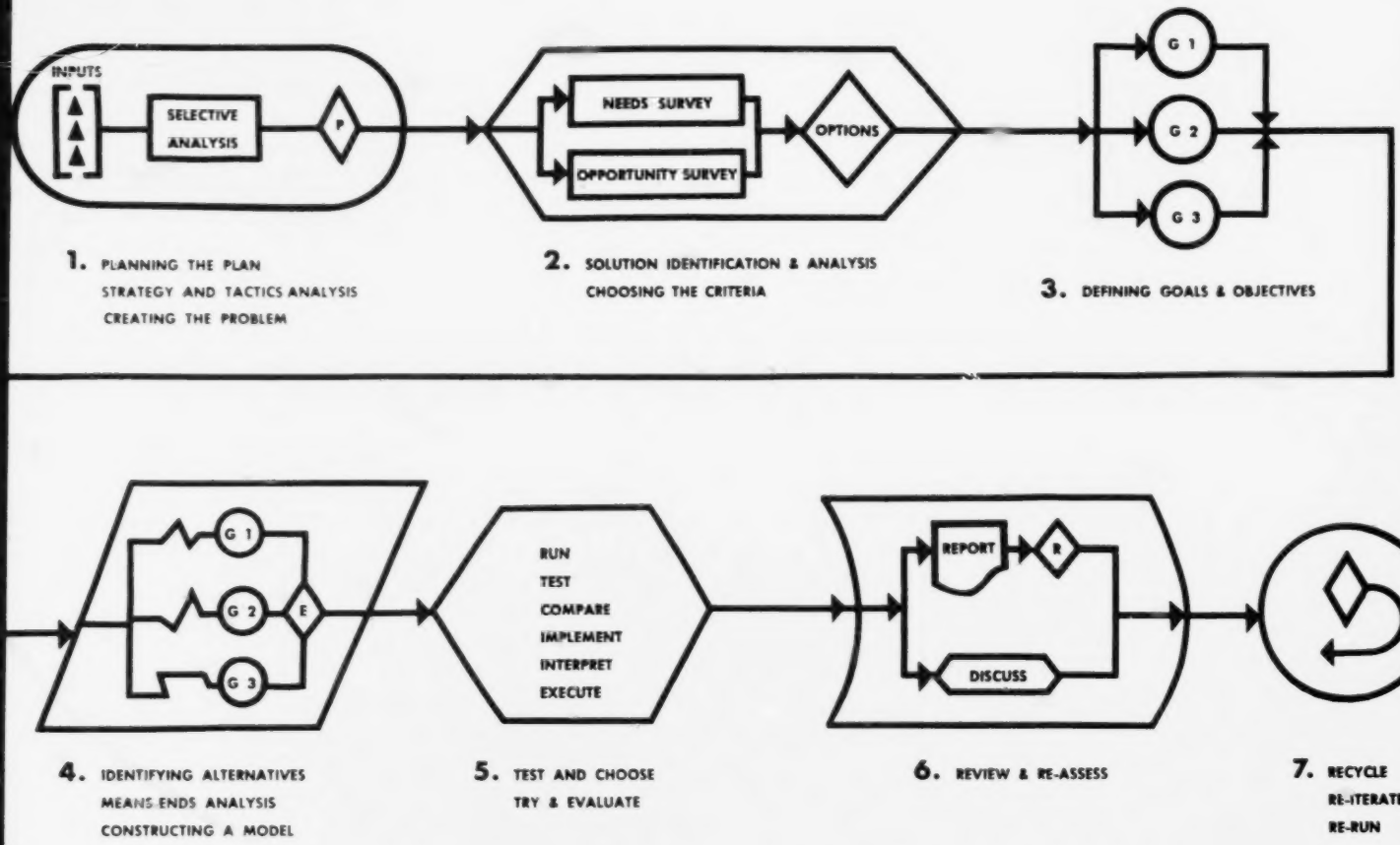
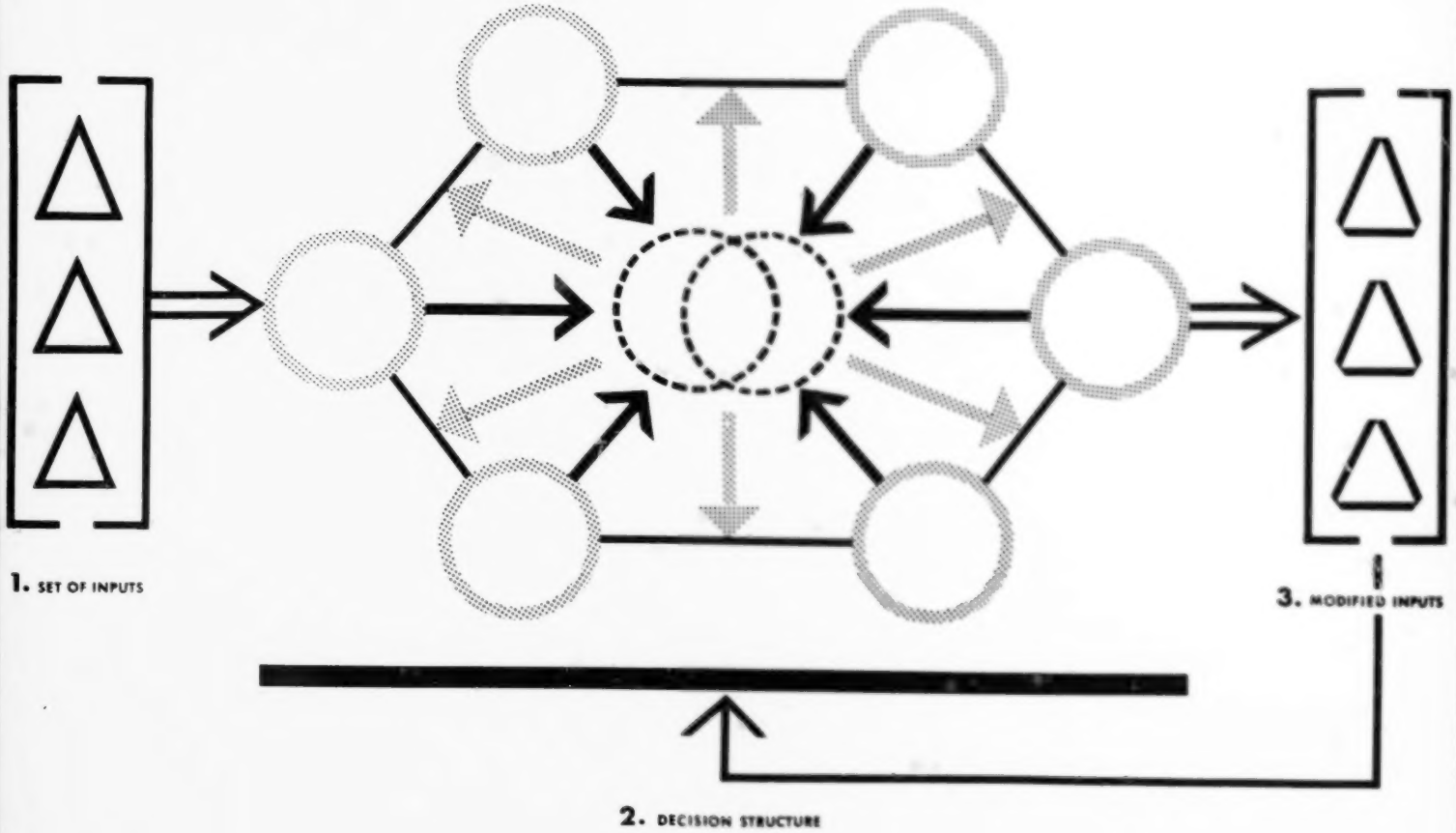


FIGURE 2

## A HEURISTIC MODEL FOR POLITICAL DECISION MAKING



instances in which research made a difference in policy change. He believes that the extensive changes in Swedish higher education since World War II would have occurred with or without the research undertaken.

If changes in Swedish higher education have been better planned or more socially-engineered than in other nations, the relevance of rational, analytic methods of planning is indeed suspect. Yet, as Husen, Premfors, and others recognize, there are ways in which systematic, objective planning contributes to educational improvements and progress. Such efforts often serve well to enlighten or sensitize policy-makers to crucial policy issues and the results of sequential, problem-solving planning can be used effectively within the framework of political/deliberative decisions and choices concerning educational policy.

In planning practice, the conflict between sequential and transactional models may not be as severe as they are in theory. In the U.S.A., there has long been a tendency in a national character to seek practical compromises that avoid either/or deadlocks. No planning commission, committee, or team will fail to collect and at least peruse massive data on the educational enterprise with which they are dealing. And from within the membership of planning groups will inevitably arise spokesmen for particular ideological views, societal preferences, or value premises. And before reporting their findings and making their recommendations, all planning groups will agree, tacitly or otherwise, on some rationale that bows in the direction of objective facts and educational realities. If the reasons for a finding or a recommendation are blatantly political, they will never appear as such in published form; reasons, findings, and recommendations will always be rationalized in terms of societal and educational necessities.

The experiences of many planners would suggest that it is indeed possible to coalesce the effective features of diverse planning methods and some degree of coalescence may be inevitable in the planning process. See Table 1 for a summary of their comparative advantages and limitations. If the choice, development, and use of planning methods remain sensitive to the multiple purposes of complex, large-scale institutions, no planning process will be the mechanistic application of pre-determined planning models. Provisional variations will be made in the planning process as their necessity or desirability become evident to the planning participants. Whatever planning is, it is not a replication of classical experimental designs.

## QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY AS PLANNING OBJECTIVES

Among the changing demands placed upon institutions of higher education in the past decade, none have been more crucial than public demands for improved quality and increased efficiency. A global crisis

TABLE 1

ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF PLANNING MODELS

| | ADVANTAGES | LIMITATIONS |
|---|---|---|
| Sequential | Rational/analytic | Inhibits imagination |
| Problem-solving | Information-processing | Overly dependent on data & information |
| | – deals with facts | |
| Models | Orderly procedures | Risk of information overload |
| | – steps & stages of development | Technique-dominated |
| | Task-oriented | – may be mechanistic |
| | Convincing to policymakers | May not persuade others to take action |
| | Deliberative | Difficulty in maintaining task orientation |
| Transactional | – group discussion | |
| Decision-making | Permits expression of values, preferences, beliefs & attitudes | Factual information may be overlooked or be excluded |
| Models | Proposal/counterproposal progression | Subject to majority rule |
| | Encourages | Commitments may not follow decisions |
| | – negotiation | |
| | – compromise | |
| | – reconciliation of group differences | |
| | Process-oriented | |
| | Facilitates choice of goals | May flounder in choice of means |
| | Persuasive in tone/style | May not be convincing to all participants |

in energy was particularly effective in calling attention to limited natural resources and national needs for better means of resource allocation and utilization. National goals for improved access to postsecondary opportunities were soon followed by national needs to ensure that quality was not being sacrificed in the process.

To serve well as planning objectives, however, both efficiency and quaility must be more carefully defined, and more adequate means of measuring or assessing each must be developed. As easily as efficiency and quality enter the thought and discussion of university administrators and faculty, both concepts are in need of working definitions that will serve the purposes of educational planning, assessment, and evaluation. In brief, there are no measures of efficiency and quality waiting to be discovered; indices of both must be empirically developed and validated (Fincher, 1978).

Both concepts are employed too easily as absolutes in a world that is always relative. Efficiency is often discussed as if it were the opposite of effectiveness, and quality is treated in a similar manner as if it were the opposite of quantity. Neither efficiency nor quality would seem to be as absolute as usage implies, and appreciable harm can result from thinking of efficiency and effectiveness, quality and quantity, as mutually exclusive categories.

In both engineering and economic terms, efficiency can be computed as a ratio of outputs and inputs. The computation of indices of efficiency thus becomes a matter of specifying the inputs to a process and then deriving useful measures of relevant outputs. In applying such ratios to higher education, however, numerous mistakes are made concerning the composition of both outputs and inputs. Too frequently, educational costs are considered as the only inputs because they presumably are easy to estimate and attention can then be directed to measures of effectiveness, benefits, utilities, and advantages that can serve as educational outputs. When cost/effectiveness ratios are treated as indices of efficiency, it is evident that efficiency and effectiveness are neither absolute nor opposing concepts. See Table 2 for examples of efficiency indices that make educational sense.

The efficiency of higher education has been severely criticized because simplistic notions of educational costs have encouraged simplistic notions of educational outputs. The return-on-investment for a college education, for example, has often been computed on the assumption that initial salaries, pay-raises, lifetime earnings, and other evidence of pecuniary gain are the only reasons for attending college. The differential between the initial salaries of college and secondary school graduates has been used in arguments that a college education is not worth what it costs. Granting the premises upon which such arguments are made, the rate-of-return for some occupations does indeed suggest a poor investment

TABLE 2

INDICES OF EFFICIENCY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Efficiency as a ratio of inputs and outcomes: $E = \frac{O}{I}$

1. Efficiency is regarded as improved when output is increased without a corresponding increase in costs.

2. Similarly, efficiency is believed to be improved when costs are reduced while maintaining previous levels of output.

3. Improved efficiency may also be relative to other efficiency indices that are independently derived, are comparable, and provide an acceptable standard (i.e. computer-based instruction may show no significant differences in student learning but an appreciable difference in per-student costs).

Efficiency as a ratio of resources and demands: $E = \frac{R}{D}$

4. Efficiency may be demonstrated by meeting an increased demand for educational services without allocating additional resources (i.e., increase in average class size without hiring additional faculty).

5. Efficiency may be increased by improving faculty teaching capabilities (i.e., innovations in instructional design or development) at a cost less than that required for faculty replacement.

6. Efficiency may be gained by using resources more frequently, more fully, or more systematically (i.e., the use of physical facilities at times other than those traditionally associated with their use).

7. Efficiency may be increased through a more effective matching of program resources and faculty capabilities (i.e., using the program's best lecturers in the larger classrooms at times when they can lecture to combined classes).

## TABLE 3

## CONVINCING INDICES OF QUALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Institutions and programs in higher education are believed to possess quality when:

1. They perform well in comparison to a known, widely accepted standard, such as a long-standing record in organized sports or an impressively high level of accomplishment in competition with institutions and programs of reputed status and prestige.

2. Their recorded performance compares favorably with some established measure of potential, such as a higher-than-expected rate of participation in graduate and professional education despite relatively low test scores on ability and achievement tests.

3. They perform well in comparison to previous and perhaps publicized records of achievement, such as an impressive increase in the number of students exempting basic courses or taking advantage of the institution's advanced placement program.

4. Observed performance is judged as excellent by informed authorities who have visited classrooms, laboratories, etc. and observed teaching and learning there; that is to say, the professional judgment of knowledgeable and creditable experts or specialists.

5. Their recorded or observed performance is clearly superior to the resources available for the tasks of instruction, training, and/or development (i.e., unimpressive library holdings, laboratory and computer facilities, and faculty credentials but outstanding student performance).

6. They are perceived by peer institutions and colleagues as pacesetting, innovative, worthy of emulation, etc; that is to say, the institution has a reputation for being the first in progressive changes of policies and practices.

7. The institution or program has an obviously unique status or provides a service that no other institution or program provides as well.

8. Faculty and students display an unexpectedly high degree of morale, professional pride, espirit de corps, productivity, or other quantifiable outcome.

9. There is a commendable interaction among graduates and former faculty members, i.e. active, sustaining friendships and professional relations among a high proportion of people formerly associated with the institution.

TABLE 4

UNCONVINCING INDICES OF QUALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Some indices of quality may be misleading:

1. Prominence of administrators and faculty as presidential cabinet members, as members of governing or executive boards, and as members of national commissions, etc. does not necessarily reflect the quality of institutions or programs.

2. Election to membership in national academies, such as National Academy of Sciences, American Academy of Arts and Sciences, etc. is indicative only of individual accomplishments – and say little about the quality of institutions and programs.

3. Attraction of special public resources, such as government and foundation funds for studies of national policies and priorities, is indicative only of institutional research capabilities and gives no evidence of excellence in undergraduate instruction and public services of other kinds.

Some institutions and programs may exhibit high quality in societal services and commitments but remain relatively inconspicuous:

4. Services to state government may go unrecognized because of the suspicion with which government services are often viewed.

5. Services to students may be unappreciated because of public tendencies to equate student services with housing and student cafeterias (two services whose quality is seldom distinctive).

6. Service as a supportive and loyal critic of state and society may be unrecognized because of the low esteem in which constructive criticism is held.

7. Contributions of institutions and programs in the cultural realm of ideas, beliefs, and values may go unnoticed in a society dominated by mass media; for example, innovations in dance and drama seldom receive media attention.

8. Excellence in teaching may often be unrecognized because of the limited bases that students have for comparison; i.e., well-taught courses may be perceived only as overly demanding.

of private funds. Such arguments are notoriously weak, however, in handling societal benefits and costs that are involved, personal benefits and/or utilities that may result from college attendance, and personal/societal advantages that are often ignored.

Serviceable indices of quality are not as easy to compute. Quality is usually presented as an attribute or characteristic that is not amenable to scaling and/or measurement, and no one seems to have computed cost/quality ratios to capture the attention of critics and observers. Rejected in such notions of quality is an older point of view in which qualities are seen as distinctive attributes, properties, or scalar dimensions that exist in some degree, amount, extent, or magnitude (Kaplan, 1964). See Table 3 for some indices that might convince others of intrisic quality.

As used in many educational discussions, quality is the 1980 version of excellence, as interpreted in the 1960s by John Gardner. But whereas most of us can agree that Gardner gave an excellent interpretation of excellence, no one has yet issued a quality statement on quality. It is altogether possible that no such statement will be issued because of doubts that quality is a characteristic that can be attributed to institutions of higher education in their entirety. Because of the complexity of universities and the remarkable variation seen in their programs and services, quality is an institutional characteristic only by reputation and ascribed status. Quality is sometimes an inferred feature because of selectivity in admissions and the resulting prestige. But in such terms, quality is linked too strongly to elitism in education and when value-added notions of evaluation are applied to many such institutions, they do not show the increments in student achievement and competence that larger, less selective institutions do. Still, there is some basis for choosing selectivity as one indication of quality. Research has almost always shown the individual differences of students to be the largest, single determinant of educational outcomes, and institutions that admit only talented and accomplished students will turn out talented and accomplished graduates. See Table 4 for indices of quality that might not convince others.

Just as quality might not be attributed to institutions, so is it unlikely to be a dominant characteristic of baccalaureate degree programs, when considered as a whole. The Carnegie Foundation (1977) has identified major fields of study in American universities as "a success story" but believes general education to be "an idea in distress." Their evaluation suggests that American college and university faculty members teach well the subjects in which they have specialized and teach poorly courses that are general or indirectly related to teaching and research interests of the faculty.

The improvement of quality would thus appear to be dependent upon agreement on what needs to be improved. Such an agreement must begin with recognition that qualities are plural and not Platonic ideals or forms. Aristotelian notions of quality would suggest that in most acade-

mic programs and services, there might be an integrity, coherence, unity, or wholeness without which education is incomplete or fragmented. In this way, quality could be regarded as an intrinsic feature that we derive or infer from empirical evidence, informed judgments by knowledgeable professionals, or combinations thereof. Peer review has been, and continues to be, an effective way of evaluating research proposals and the potentiality of research projects; it is not an unknown way of judging quality and the improvement of quality.

A pragmatic criterion for quality might be that it is a distinctive characteristic about which there is no doubt. The outcomes, appropriateness, and/or effectiveness of some programs, methods, services in higher education are such that no one seriously doubts their quality. In such cases, there would appear to be "a goodness of fit" between program purposes and program performance that is publicly expected and publicly verified. Another way of saying this is to point to the consensual validation that some educational programs, methods, and services have attained. Their outcomes are not believed by knowledgeable and reasonable observers to be unintended, unanticipated, and/or fortuitous. The value premises of such programs, methods, and services can be articulated and we can attribute to them a quality or merit deserving of public and/or societal support and esteem.

## CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The difficulties of planning for quality and efficiency in higher education are not insurmountable, but there are difficulties. Many of these difficulties are the result of conflicting demands placed upon institutions of higher education in democratic societies. The purposes of higher education are multiple and complex; and so the purposes of planning must be. In turn, the choice and development of planning methods is dependent upon our many reasons for planning. There is no one method, technique, or system of planning that is best for all institutions of higher education. Where a particular method, technique, or system has served an institution well, it is probably one that the institution has designed, developed, and/or adapted for its particular uses and purposes.

A value premise upon which this paper has been written is the belief that educational planning should be for educational purposes. The university is not a business corporation and it is not a government agency. There is an interdependence, nonetheless, among universities, corporations, and governments that must be acknowledged, and cooperation, instead of competitiveness, should be one purpose in planning. Quality and efficiency are other policies or planning purposes that universities, corporations, and governments alike should pursue.

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